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ABSTRACT

This study assessed various traits of two Japanese high school students' communicative performance by examining their interaction with native speakers of English while they were visiting the United States as part of a 5-day study tour. The study focused on the kind of student performance that should be considered a successful outcome of school-based communicative learning. For this tour, students had received English lessons four times per week and taken lessons that emphasized communication two to three times per week. Thirty videotaped scenes of the students' interactions with their host families were analyzed from both functional and formal perspectives. Results indicated that classroom learning may have exercised favorable effects on the establishment of interpersonal relationships and helped improve listening comprehension skills. There were few signs of communicative breakdown due to input incomprehensibility. The host father provided a significant amount of conversational support. However, students' language production failed to attain a high level of syntactic development. The study recommends that some kind of pushed output training be incorporated into communication-first classroom teaching to avoid premature fossilization in productive skill development. (Contains 25 references.) (SM)

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1

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Observation of High School Students' Real-life Communication During a Study Tour Abroad

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This study tries to assess some traits of high school students' communicative performance by paying close attention to their interaction with native speakers of English while they were visiting a host country. From a pedagogical point of view, what kind of student performance should be regarded as a successful outcome of school-based communicative learning? Thirty scenes of two students' interaction with their hosts, which were video recorded during their home stay, are analyzed from functional and formal perspectives. The evidence suggests that classroom learning may have exercised favorable effects on interpersonal relationship establishment and listening comprehension skill improvement. However, it seems that the students' production failed to attain a high level of syntactic development. It is recommended that some kind of pushed output training be incorporated into 'communication first' classroom teaching to avoid premature fossilization in productive skill development.

1. Introduction

Over the past two decades, the need to reform the nation's English education has been called for. The JET program was initiated in 1987, and the high school curriculum revision was put into effect and the new three Oral Communication courses started in 1994. With the goal of promoting the dissemination of communication-stressed tendencies, a variety of in-service teacher training programs, conferences, seminars and workshops have often taken place throughout the country. It is doubtful, however, whether this long-term reform project has been really successful. Some empirical studies focusing on the development of EFL learners' communicative competence have been conducted (e.g., Ando et al., 1992; Kurahachi et al. 1992; Kurahachi, 1993, 1994a, 1994b, 1995; Kitajima, 1997), but the subjects of these studies have almost always been either those at the elementary level with low proficiency or those at the tertiary level with intermediate to advanced proficiency. Hardly any study has been undertaken at the secondary level (although see Iwami, 2000a, 2000b). Furthermore, the studies, even meant to assess the learners' communicative competence, are commonly based on their linguistic performance in experimental or test-taking situations, where learner language tends to be considered as a monologue of a unilateral nature.

Everyday verbal behaviors, as seen in a home stay situation, are face-to-face communication of a dynamic, interactive nature. Yashima & Viswat (1993) suggest that the English ability required in the interaction with the host family is not the kind readily measured by standardized written examinations. If we are to see the outcome of our communication-stressed instruction, we may find it more valid to focus on the learners' performance in such real-life social context than that in a test-taking situation.

These days, a lot of secondary school students are provided opportunities to visit English-speaking countries. From a pedagogical point of view, what kind of student performance can be regarded as a successful outcome of classroom learning? Do we admit that visiting an English-speaking country and having a good time alone is success? What could be done to make their communicative performance more successful so that this cross-cultural experience can be more fruitful? Does classroom learning really exercise favorable effects on their communicative performance? Often, the accountability of current communication-stressed teaching has remained unquestioned and unchecked (Wada, 2000). Hopefully, answers to these questions will provide us, as practitioners of communicative teaching, with some clues as to where we are now and where we should go from here.

2. Background

Hachinohe Commercial School offers three curricula: International Economics, Commerce and Information Processing. What characterizes the International Economics Curriculum, the students of which are the subjects of this study, is its rich communication-stressed environment, with special emphasis placed on the development of basic communicative competence along with the acquisition of international business-related knowledge and skills. While the Commercial and the Information Processing groups only receive the traditional type of formal instruction four times a week during the first two years, the International Economics majors not only receive this instruction but also take a communication-stressed lesson named Business Communication in English twice or three times a week. The lesson is always taught by a team of instructors, consisting of our school-based assistant language teacher (ALT), two or three Japanese teachers of English and a teacher of the Commercial Education Department. The textbook Passport covers a lot of situations the students might encounter while they are abroad, and each of 20 units comprises a listening comprehension task, a list of key expressions, a controlled situation-embedded conversation, and various types of communicative tasks. These short units have given us some flexibility and variety in our lesson planning. Two hours are generally spent on each unit, with the first for the coverage of textbook routines and the second for a review quiz and some communicative activities. As a supplement to the list of key expressions, handouts of extra vocabulary lists are occasionally provided. Memorization of the words and expressions is often

encouraged. As a homework assignment, the students are often requested to write their personalized conversation, based on the model given in the textbook, where the emphasis is placed on creative, meaningful, and spontaneous use of language.

One of the greatest moments for the International Economics majors is a study tour abroad (Iwami, 2000c). During the second semester of the second year, the students visit the U.S. and enjoy a five-day trip schedule, including home stay, field work, a local high school visit, a self-planned group tour, shopping, etc. From 1995 to 1997, the class visited Hawaii. In 1998 and 1999 they visited California, and in 2000 they went to Hawaii once more.

After each year's study tour, the staff members of the International Economics Department and the English Department have a report session, where we watch a video edited from teacher and student self-recording. Mainly based on the observations of the teachers who went on the study tour with the students, we have discussed what problems the students have had and how they can be solved. To date the following problems have been observed: the students had difficulty keeping up with the rate of native speakers' speech delivery and they fell into silence once they faced incomprehensibility. On the plus side, the formation of small groups with local students promoted active interaction on the school visit, and our students spoke English more than expected, and even those who had remained inactive in class felt that they should have studied harder. These remarks are mostly impressionistic claims that have nothing to do with empirical research, but they are important for teachers who wish to modify their own classroom teaching. Nevertheless, it is still unknown what kind of interaction the students actually exercised with local people. It has been decided that it is necessary to observe their actual interaction with native speakers.

3. Review of Literature

It is now common practice to take secondary school students overseas for a school trip (or *kaigai shugaku ryoko*), or a study tour abroad (or *kaigai kenshu*). The latter refers to less-than-three-month-long programs in which students can opt to take part. As shown in the statistical data provided by the Association of International Educational Exchange (http://www/aiee.gr.jp/tokei1.htm & tokei2.htm), in the 1998 school year, 161,438 high school students went on school trips abroad, showing a 23.5% increase from 1996, when 130,669 participated. On the other hand, 37,426 students joined a study tour abroad in 1998, showing a 9.7% gain from 1996, when 34,110 took part. The Aomori Prefectural Board of Education started to permit public schools to take students abroad in 1994. Thirteen public high schools in this prefecture now take their students abroad, with seven going on school trips to South Korea, the Republic of China, Thailand, and the United States. The remaining six have special curricula; English, Foreign Languages, International Culture and International Economics, and they all take their curriculum-enrolled students on study tours to the United States (Tanaka, a supervisor of the Aomori Prefectural Board of Education,

5
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personal communication, 2001).

In spite of the fact that the school trip aboard and the short-term and long-term study tours have gained increasing popularity, there has been very little research which focuses on the status quo and possible problems, with the major studies being those of Yashima and Viswat (1991, 1993) and Yashima (1999). Yashima & Viswat (1991) investigated the relationship between high school students' English abilities reflected on pre-departure English written test scores and their cross-cultural adjustment in the sense of satisfaction with family life and school life in America during their long-term stay, and they found no correlation. Yashima & Viswat (1993) discovered that there were no correlations between high school students' English abilities reflected on the written test scores and the host family's assessment of their adjustment, English ability and effort to communicate. Yashima (1999) investigated whether such individual variables as English proficiency and extroversion affect the intercultural adjustment process of high school sojourners, and found that extroversion was a predictor of almost all self-rated measures of adjustment, including satisfaction with friendship with Americans, relationships with the host family and school work. It was also found that English proficiency was a predictor of host-rated adjustment to family and school life, but not of self-rated adjustment or sense of satisfaction. According to Yashima, these results probably indicate that accurate verbalization is important from the host family's perspective; students who appear to have adjusted in the host family's eyes are likely to be those who are communicating well in English, i.e., accurately and effectively. English proficiency is undoubtedly the most important factor for successful overseas experience.

A pre-departure questionnaire carried out by the Association of International Educational Exchange also revealed that English was the top concern for the respondents. It was reported that 132 of the 198 high school students who took part in study tours in 1998 looked upon mastery of English as the major objective (http://www/aiee.gr.jp/mt_b.htm). It was also found that 119 respondents were worried or concerned about conversation in English, 84 about host families and 47 about communication.

It is interesting and yet unknown how high school students actually interact with native speakers on such occasions and what specific problems with English proficiency they face. To the best knowledge of this researcher, no study has been undertaken to observe actual verbal behaviors of high school students participating in a school trip or study-tour program. Visiting an English speaking country and having a good time alone can be meaningful for them. However, is there anything that could be done to make their communicative performance more successful so that their cross-cultural experience can be still more fruitful? What kind of student performance can be regarded as a successful outcome of communicative learning? Finding the answers to these questions may lead to scrutiny of the accountability of our communication-stressed teaching.

4. The present study

This study tries to assess some traits of high school students' communicative abilities by paying close attention to their interaction with native speakers of English while they visited a host country on a study tour, with the ultimate goal being to establish a direct relationship between classroom communicative teaching and the acquisition of communicative skills. The focus will be on the 1999 Hachinohe Commercial High School juniors' communicative performance in a small community named Manteca, California, where they were supplied with opportunities for a home stay and local high school visit. Thirty scenes of two students' involvement in interaction with their host family were video recorded during the two-day home stay program. The transcription of the video recorded verbal interactions will be analyzed from functional and formal perspectives. It will be discussed whether classroom learning has really exercised favorable effects on their communicative performance. Lastly, some instructional implication for improving our current school-based communicative teaching will be offered.

4.1. The study tour abroad, home stay and preparatory instruction

Thirty-five International Economics juniors went on a five-day study tour to California in the fall of 1999. This researcher was the head of this tour. The tour schedule consisted of sightseeing in San Francisco and its vicinity, local supermarket research, visiting the UC Berkley campus, a home stay and local high school visit in Manteca, a self-planned group tour in San Francisco, and shopping.

On the second day, the students were transported by a chartered bus to Manteca from the bay area. They were greeted by the coordinator of the home stay organization in a local high school parking lot. After a brief orientation, they met their host families and enjoyed a potluck welcome picnic together and began their home stay adventure. Unlike high school students who join a long-term study abroad program, as in the studies by Yashima et al. (1991, 1993) and Yashima (1999), these students were given only two days to enjoy a home stay experience.

As mentioned above, for this tour, the students had not only received a regular English lesson four times a week but had also taken communication-stressed lessons two to three times a week. About a month prior to their departure, a one-day special English lesson had been held, where about ten ALTs were invited to help check whether each student could communicate well in a series of true-to-life simulations. They were also taught how to present and describe souvenirs to their host families. In addition, they were instructed to prepare a self-made journal in which the description of their family, school life, hometown and so forth were provided, expecting that it would serve as a topic generator.

4.2. The subjects

The subjects of this study were two female students, N and H, selected from the thirty-five International Economics majors for a practical reason; originally the task of video recording was assigned to several pairs with the goal of examining whether the pre-measured academic and communicative levels made any difference in their communicative performances. Letters of permission for video recording were handed to the host families when the assigned pairs were introduced to them. However, technical clumsiness and lack of talk-and-recording experience did not allow all the assigned pairs to video record their verbal interactions for a lengthy period of time. The video data taken by N and H was, however, relatively long and filled with their active verbal communication.

Preliminary assessment of their academic level of English as an academic subject and their communicative abilities were conducted based on the mean scores of the first term final examinations of English and the oral examination scores of the communication-stressed course. They were considered to be at fairly high levels of academic and communicative performances.

4.3. Data collection and data analyses

The video recording took place on the evening when N and H were driven to the host residence. The tapes were later edited and only the scenes of the students' direct verbal interaction with the host family were pasted together, which turned out to be approximately thirty minutes in length. Most of the scenes were of presenting and explaining souvenirs from Japan, explaining locally situated experiences at home, and talking about an unexpected schedule change, etc. All the conversation participants' linguistic performances were transcribed with the help of our school-based ALT.

In the data analyses, two linguistic units, utterance and encoded move, are employed[1]. Utterances are defined here as what the speaker expresses by means of any language form, ranging from a single word to a complex sentence, with a particular function carried. Crookes and Rulon (1985: 9) defined an utterance as a stream of speech with at least one of the following characteristics: (1) under one intonation contour, (2) bounded by pauses, and (3) constituting a single semantic unit (see also Crookes, 1990). When the corpus was tabulated into Microsoft Excel for the subsequent computational analysis, Crookes and Rulon's definition was applied. Moves are defined as what the speaker does in a conversational turn (Stenstrom, 1994: 30), and encoded moves are here defined as utterances, single or combined, boxed off for a sentence-based grammatical analysis.

Data analyses were undertaken to investigate the functional and formal domains of student communicative performance. The functional analysis focuses on the behavioral functions carried by each utterance. Kumagai (1997: 28-9) devised a classification schema of twelve indices, one of

which is applied for the present study: behavioral function. This index consists of seven categories: request for information, request for action, request for attention, provision of information, indication of recognition, establishment of interpersonal relations, and decisive declaration[2]. Each utterance found in the transcript was tallied into the seven categories. The proportion of each category used was calculated by dividing the frequency of each one that the conversation participants produced by the total number of their utterances.

The formal analyses focus on the degree of intra-sentential completeness, the degree of inter-sentential complexity, and the degree of grammatical accuracy. The degree of intra-sentential completeness refers to the proportion of intra-sentential subcategories of utterances, which is calculated by dividing the frequency of each subcategory which the conversation participants produced by the total number of their utterances. The intra-sentential subcategories consist of minimal and phrasal utterances, clause-containing utterances, and miscellanies. Minimal utterances consist of one or a few words; and phrasal utterances include nominal, adjectival (if any), and adverbial phrases. They are both combined into one category for the sake of convenience. Clause-containing utterances refer to those containing at least one clause. Grammatically incomplete utterances, with the subject omitted but the predicate supplied, are also classified as clause-containing utterances. Miscellanies consist of formulaic speeches, ready-made sentence stems that can be memorized as wholes (for a review, see Weinert, 1995), such as *Excuse me* and *Just a minute*. Such expressions as *Hello*, *Yes*, *Uh huh*, *I'm sorry* and *I beg your pardon?* are classified into this category.

The degree of inter-sentential complexity refers to the proportion of inter-sentential subcategories of clause-containing encoded moves, which is calculated by dividing the frequency of each subcategory which the conversation participants produced by the total number of their encoded moves. Inter-sentential subcategories consist of single-clause encoded moves, coordination-containing encoded moves and subordination-containing encoded moves. Single-clause encoded moves are those in which only one clause is found. Coordination-containing encoded moves refer to those which contain horizontal sequencing of clauses, often with connectors such as *and* or *but* intervening. Subordination-containing encoded moves are those in which either subordination or complementation is embedded. Notice an encoded move may consist of a single utterance, or two or more utterances.

The degree of grammatical accuracy is calculated by dividing the total number of each subject's error-free clause-containing encoded moves by the total number of her clause-containing encoded moves.

See the following example. This is a scene where H explains to the host mother (M) who the American people in one of her pictures are:

H1-1: Misawa's American people.
M1-1: A host family or a family?

H2-1: No, no, no.
H2-2: Misawa live in.
H2-3: Misawa live in people.
H2-4: I am a Hachinohe live in.
H2-5: Doesn't live.
M2-1: OK, OK.

(Extracted from Scene 15)

From the context, this dialogue would be able to be interpreted as follows:

H1-1': They are American people in Misawa.
M1-1': Are they a host family with whom you have stayed or just a family?
H2-1': No, no, no.
H2-2': They are Misawa residents.
H2-3': They are Misawa residents.
H2-4': I am a Hachinohe resident.
H2-5': They don't live in America.
M2-1': OK, OK.

Each line shows a token of utterance. All the utterances produced by H, i.e., H1-1, H2-1, H2-2, H2-3, H2-4, H2-5 are functionally categorized as of information provision. The first utterance produced by the host mother, M1-1, was for requesting information. Her second utterance, M2-1, was intended for the indication of recognition. For the classification of intra-sentential completeness, H1-1, M1-1, H2-2 and H2-3 are regarded as minimal/phrasal utterances. H2-4 is regarded as a clause-containing utterance, and the supply of the predicate verb *live* makes H2-5 marginally categorized as a clause-containing utterance despite the missing subject. H2-1 and M2-1 are regarded as miscellanies. For inter-sentential complexity analysis, H2-4 and H2-5 will be at issue. Both of them are regarded as single-clause encoded moves. A grammatical accuracy analysis regards both of them as incorrect.

Here is another example. This is a scene where the host parents (F and M) wondered what is the main ingredient of a particular Japanese food, *otsumami*, which H had brought.

F1-1: It's . . . it's . . . she said it's fish. (To the host mother)
H1-1: Yeah.
H1-2: This fish . . . cod fish.
F2-1: Cod fish.
M1-1: Oh, cod fish.
M1-2: Dried.

10

F3-1: I could have cod fish.
F3-2: Shell . . . these . . . this . . . the shrimp or lobster, if I eat it, I will . . .
(With a gesture of suffocating himself)
H2-1: Ah.
F4-1: I can't eat shellfish.
F4-2: It will kill me.
F4-3: So I have to eat . . . be very careful that there's no fish on these.
F4-4: Oh, oh . . . that I can eat.

(Extracted from Scene 9)

The following utterances, F1-1, H1-2, F3-1, F3-2, F4-1, F4-2, F4-3 and F4-4 are all functionally regarded as intended for information provision. The others, H1-1, F2-1, M1-1, M1-2, H2-1 are all regarded as utterances for the indication of recognition.

For the classification of intra-sentential completeness, F2-1, M1-1, and M1-2 are regarded as minimal/phrasal utterances. F1-1, F3-1, F3-2, F4-1, F4-2, F4-3, F4-4 are all considered to be clause-containing utterances, and H1-2 is marginally categorized as a clause-containing utterance despite the missing verb is. H1-1 and H2-1 are regarded as miscellanies. For the inter-sentential complexity analysis, H1-2, F3-1 and F4-1 are regarded as single-clause encoded moves. F3-2 is considered to be one token of subordination. F4-2 and F4-3 could be collaborated into one multi-clause encoded move, with one token of subordination (that-clause) and one token of coordination incorporated.

Descriptive statistical data will be provided in the following section. However, no analysis of inferential statistics will be conducted on the ground that the data collection procedure does not contain any element of experimental design.

5. Findings

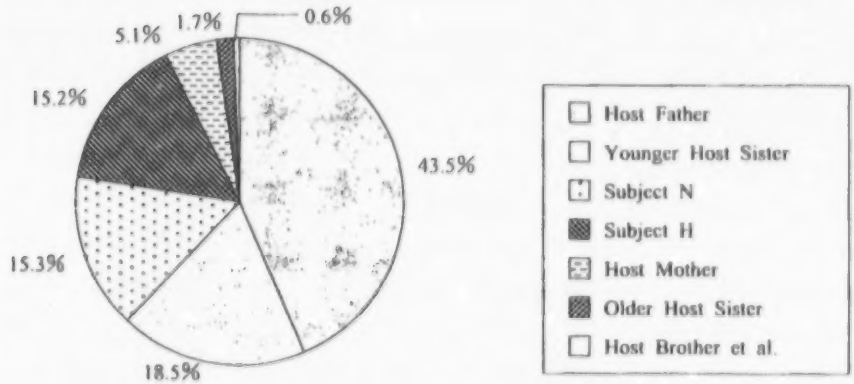
The results of each individual speaker's contribution to the discourse development are summarized in Table 1. It shows the number of utterances produced by the two subjects, N and H, and the host family members, i.e., the host father, the host mother, the younger host sister, the older host sister, and the host brother and his companions during the observed interaction. Notice that interactions among the conversation participants took place in a non-equally distributed manner, sometimes in the form of one-to-one dialogue, sometimes in the form of multi-party chatting, and one time in the form of unilateral direction giving. Therefore the percentage of each speaker's verbal contribution does not bear any significant meaning but merely provides us with a rough sketch of the ratio of participatory contribution to the video taped interaction. N and H

coincidentally produced almost the same number of utterances (123 and 122, 15.3% and 15.2%, respectively). As can be seen in Graph 1, the host father contributed considerably to the progress of discourse, producing 350 utterances (43.5%), and the younger host sister produced 149 utterances (18.5%). The participation of the mother, the older sister and the brother and his companions were limited, because they happened to be unavailable while the video recording was taking place[3].

Table 1. Frequencies of Utterances

Scene / Speaker	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15
Host father	13	18	26	0	0	5	0	0	35	12	42	8	1	31	0
Younger host sister	9	5	15	23	7	7	6	7	15	5	9	9	3	0	1
Subject N	8	0	5	3	0	2	2	4	1	0	9	0	0	22	0
Subject H	6	10	8	2	1	5	2	0	17	4	7	4	1	3	6
Host mother	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	5	0	0	0	3	16	4
Older host sister	11	3	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Host brother et al.	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	5	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Subtotal	47	36	54	28	8	19	10	16	73	21	67	21	8	72	11

16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30	Total	%
15	6	31	0	11	33	29	9	5	0	0	3	1	3	13	350	43.5%
0	0	1	3	1	0	1	2	0	8	6	1	0	1	4	149	18.5%
1	0	19	2	3	12	16	7	3	0	0	0	0	0	4	123	15.3%
0	2	0	3	6	3	1	0	0	8	9	2	2	6	4	122	15.2%
1	8	4	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	41	5.1%
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	14	1.7%
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	5	0.6%
17	16	55	8	21	48	47	18	8	16	15	6	3	10	25	804	100.0%



Graph 1. Proportion of Each Speaker's Contribution to the Observed Interaction

Table 2 shows the frequencies of behavioral functions carried in utterances produced by those four dominant speakers, N, H, the host father and the younger host sister. It may be meaningful to compare behavioral function patterns of the four speakers. All four speakers showed superiority in the information-providing utterances. The most remarkable difference between the two subjects was that N produced 78 information-providing utterances, which is 63.4% of the 123 utterances, while H produced 58 information-providing utterances, which is 47.5% of the 122 utterances. Noticeably, N outstripped even the other speakers percentage-wise (45.7% for the host father; 38.3% for the younger host sister). Both N and H showed occasional use of recognition-indicating utterances (26 and 30; 21.1% and 24.6%, respectively). H produced more information-requesting utterances than N did (23 versus 9; 18.9% versus 7.3%).

Table 2. Frequencies of Behavioral Functions

Speaker	Scene / Behavioral Function	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15
	Inf Req	3	4	6	0	0	1	0	0	8	0	6	0	0	1	0
	Act Req	2	1	3	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0
Host	Att Req	1	1	6	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0
father	Inf Pro	6	5	8	0	0	3	0	0	25	8	32	4	1	17	0
	Rec Ind	1	6	3	0	0	1	0	0	2	3	2	3	0	13	0
	Rel Est	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0
	Dec Dec	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	Total	13	18	26	0	0	5	0	0	35	12	42	8	1	31	0
	Inf Req	0	0	5	0	1	1	2	3	7	2	1	5	3	0	1
	Act Req	0	3	0	15	2	2	0	2	1	0	3	0	0	0	0
Younger	Att Req	3	0	1	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0
host	Inf Pro	5	1	9	6	4	3	3	2	7	2	3	2	0	0	0
sister	Rec Ind	1	1	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	1	2	1	0	0	0
	Rel Est	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	Dec Dec	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	Total	9	5	15	23	7	7	6	7	15	5	9	9	3	0	1
	Inf Req	1	0	0	2	0	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	2	0
	Act Req	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	Att Req	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Subject	Inf Pro	4	0	4	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	5	0	0	19	0
N	Rec Ind	1	0	1	1	0	1	1	0	1	0	4	0	0	0	0
	Rel Est	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	0
	Dec Dec	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	Total	8	0	5	3	0	2	2	4	1	0	9	0	0	22	0
	Inf Req	2	0	2	1	1	2	1	0	3	0	3	0	0	2	0
	Act Req	1	4	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	Att Req	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Subject	Inf Pro	0	4	4	0	0	2	0	0	10	4	2	4	1	0	6
H	Rec Ind	3	2	2	1	0	1	1	0	4	0	2	0	0	1	0
	Rel Est	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	Dec Dec	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	Total	6	10	8	2	1	5	2	0	17	4	7	4	1	3	6

16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30	Total	%
3	2	9	0	2	5	2	3	1	0	0	2	1	0	2	61	17.4%
0	0	1	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	3	15	4.3%
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	9	2.6%
5	1	10	0	7	10	9	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	7	160	45.7%
7	3	11	0	0	17	18	5	3	0	0	1	0	0	1	100	28.6%
0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	5	1.4%
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0.0%
15	6	31	0	11	33	29	9	5	0	0	3	1	3	13	350	100.0%
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	2	0	0	0	0	35	23.5%
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	1	0	0	0	1	32	21.5%
0	0	1	1	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	11	7.4%
0	0	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	3	1	1	0	1	2	57	38.3%
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	1	0	0	0	1	13	8.7%
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0.0%
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	0.7%
0	0	1	3	1	0	1	2	0	8	6	1	0	1	4	149	100.0%
0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	9	7.3%
0	0	0	0	0	0	1	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	7	5.7%
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0.0%
0	0	14	1	1	9	12	5	3	0	0	0	0	0	1	78	63.4%
1	0	5	1	2	2	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	26	21.1%
0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	2.4%
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0.0%
1	0	19	2	3	12	16	7	3	0	0	0	0	0	4	123	100.0%
0	0	0	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	2	0	0	2	0	23	18.9%
0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	7	5.7%
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0.0%
0	2	0	1	2	2	0	0	0	5	3	1	1	1	3	58	47.5%
0	0	0	2	2	0	1	0	0	2	2	0	1	2	1	30	24.6%
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	0.8%
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	1	0	3	2.5%
0	2	0	3	6	3	1	0	0	8	9	2	2	6	4	122	100.0%

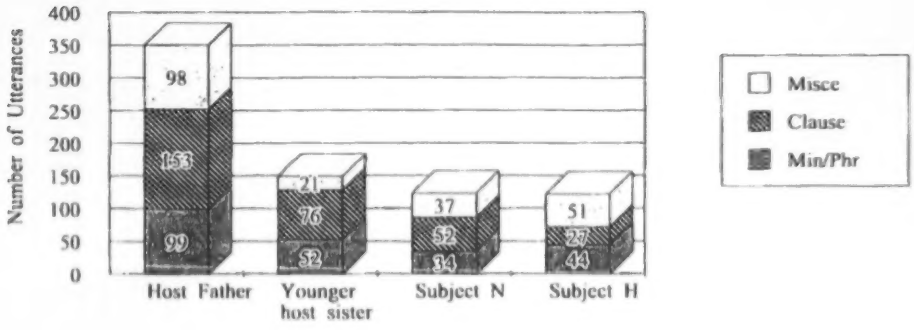
Table 3 shows the frequencies of minimal/phrasal utterances, clause-containing utterances, and miscellanies. Again it is meaningful to compare the syntactic completeness pattern of each speaker. The two native speakers expressed their intentions mostly frequently in the clause type, i.e., complete sentence type (153 tokens, 43.7% for the host father; 76 tokens, 51.0% for the younger host sister), followed by the minimal/phrasal type and then the miscellaneous type (99 tokens, 28.3% and then 98 tokens, 28.0% for the host father; 52 tokens, 34.9% and then 21 tokens, 14.1% for the younger host sister, respectively). N also expressed her intentions most frequently in the clause type, followed by the miscellaneous type and then the minimal/phrasal type (52 tokens, 37 tokens and 34 token; 42.3%, 30.1% and 27.6%, respectively). As can be seen in Graph 2 and Graph 3, H, in contrast, expressed her intentions most frequently in the miscellaneous type, followed by the minimal/phrasal type and then the clause type (51 tokens, 44 tokens and 27 tokens;

41.8%, 36.1% and 22.1% respectively).

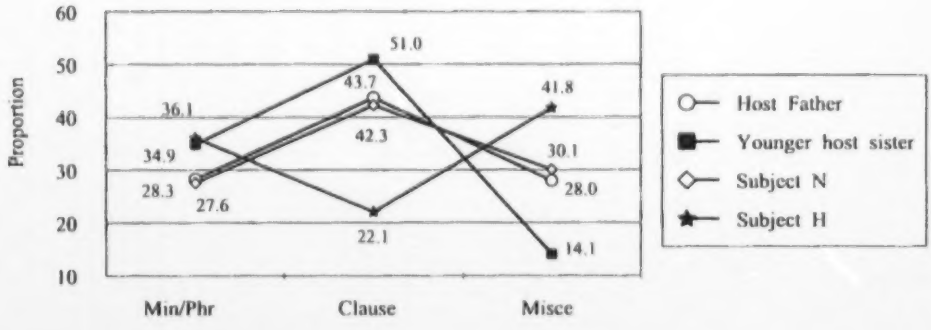
Table 3. Frequencies of Minimal/Phrasal Utterances, Clause-Containing Utterances and Miscellanies

Speaker	Scene / Utterance Type	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15
	Min/Phr	7	2	11	0	0	1	0	0	16	1	12	4	1	5	0
Host	Clause	4	8	11	0	0	2	0	0	14	5	19	3	0	12	0
father	Misce	2	8	4	0	0	2	0	0	5	6	11	1	0	14	0
	Total	13	18	26	0	0	5	0	0	35	12	42	8	1	31	0
Younger	Min/Phr	6	0	6	5	0	1	2	1	8	2	0	5	1	0	1
host	Clause	2	4	9	14	6	4	4	6	7	2	7	2	2	0	0
sister	Misce	1	1	0	4	1	2	0	0	0	1	2	2	0	0	0
	Total	9	5	15	23	7	7	6	7	15	5	9	9	3	0	1
	Min/Phr	2	0	2	2	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	2	0
Subject	Clause	5	0	1	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	18	0
N	Misce	1	0	2	1	0	1	1	3	0	0	9	0	0	2	0
	Total	8	0	5	3	0	2	2	4	1	0	9	0	0	22	0
	Min/Phr	3	3	2	1	1	1	1	0	8	2	2	2	1	2	3
Subject	Clause	0	1	2	0	0	1	0	0	4	2	1	2	0	0	2
H	Misce	3	6	4	1	0	3	1	0	5	0	4	0	0	1	1
	Total	6	10	8	2	1	5	2	0	17	4	7	4	1	3	6

16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30	Total	%
0	0	14	0	5	10	4	1	1	0	0	1	0	0	3	99	28.3%
11	2	12	0	6	15	12	2	1	0	0	1	1	3	9	153	43.7%
4	4	5	0	0	8	13	6	3	0	0	1	0	0	1	98	28.0%
15	6	31	0	11	33	29	9	5	0	0	3	1	3	13	350	100.0%
0	0	1	2	1	0	1	1	0	4	0	1	0	1	2	52	34.9%
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	2	3	0	0	0	1	76	51.0%
0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	2	3	0	0	0	1	21	14.1%
0	0	1	3	1	0	1	2	0	8	6	1	0	1	4	149	100.0%
0	0	9	1	0	3	6	1	3	0	0	0	0	0	1	34	27.6%
0	0	6	0	1	6	7	6	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	52	42.3%
1	0	4	1	2	3	3	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	37	30.1%
1	0	19	2	3	12	16	7	3	0	0	0	0	0	4	123	100.0%
0	1	0	1	2	0	0	0	0	3	2	0	0	0	3	44	36.1%
0	1	0	0	2	0	0	0	0	3	2	1	1	2	0	27	22.1%
0	0	0	2	2	3	1	0	0	2	5	1	1	4	1	51	41.8%
0	2	0	3	6	3	1	0	0	8	9	2	2	6	4	122	100.0%



Graph 2. Number of Three Types Utterances Produced by the Four Major Speakers



Graph 3. Proportion of Three Types of Utterances Produced by the Four Major Speakers

Table 4 shows the frequencies of single-clause encoded moves, coordination-containing encoded moves and subordination-containing encoded moves supplied by the four speakers. The most remarkable is that almost all the moves produced by H were the single-clause type (96.3%). The moves produced by N varied across the three types, with the single-clause type being dominant (86.5%), just as in the cases of the host father and the host sister. The single-clause type being the most dominant (83.9%), the host father produced the subordination type more frequently than the coordination type (10.5% versus 2.6%), while the host sister produced the single-clause type most frequently (92.1%), but produced the coordination and subordination types less frequently (3.9% and 3.9%). The percentage difference between the single-clause type and the other two types are

unanimously larger than that between the coordination type and the subordination type across the four speakers.

Table 4. Frequencies of Single-Clause Encoded Moves, Coordination-Containing Encoded Moves and Subordination-Containing Encoded Moves

Speaker	Scene Move type	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15
	Single	4	8	9	0	0	2	0	0	8	5	15	2	0	12	0
Host	Coord	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	0
father	Subord	0	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	4	0	4	1	0	0	0
	Total	4	8	11	0	0	2	0	0	14	5	19	3	0	12	0
Younger	Single	2	4	7	12	6	4	4	6	7	2	7	2	2	0	0
host	Coord	0	0	2	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
sister	Subord	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	Total	2	4	9	14	6	4	4	6	7	2	7	2	2	0	0
	Single	5	0	1	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	15	0
Subject	Coord	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	0
N	Subord	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0
	Total	5	0	1	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	18	0
	Single	0	1	2	0	0	1	0	0	4	2	1	2	0	0	2
Subject	Coord	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
H	Subord	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	Total	0	1	2	0	0	1	0	0	4	2	1	2	0	0	2

16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30	Total	%
10	1	11	0	4	13	12	2	1	0	0	1	1	3	9	133	86.9%
0	0	0	0	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	4	2.6%
1	1	1	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	16	10.5%
11	2	12	0	6	15	12	2	1	0	0	1	1	3	9	153	100.0%
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	2	0	0	0	1	70	92.1%
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	3.9%
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	3	3.9%
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	2	3	0	0	0	1	76	100.0%
0	0	6	0	1	4	6	5	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	45	86.5%
0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	4	7.7%
0	0	0	0	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	5.8%
0	0	6	0	1	6	7	6	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	52	100.0%
0	1	0	0	2	0	0	0	0	3	1	1	1	2	0	26	96.3%
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0.0%
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	3.7%
0	1	0	0	2	0	0	0	0	3	2	1	1	2	0	27	100.0%

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Table 5 demonstrates the degree of grammatical accuracy of clause-containing encoded moves produced by N and H. N produced 27 grammatically well-formed moves out of 52, with the degree of grammatical accuracy being 51.9%. H produced 16 grammatically well-formed moves out of 27, with the degree of grammatical accuracy being 59.3%.

Table 5. Grammatical Accuracy on Clause-Containing Encoded Moves

Speaker	Scene	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15
Subject N	Grammatical	3	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	10	0
	Ungrammatical	2	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	8	0
	Total	5	0	1	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	18	0
Subject H	Grammatical	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	1	2	1	2	0	0	0
	Ungrammatical	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	3	0	0	0	0	0	2
	Total	0	1	2	0	0	1	0	0	4	2	1	2	0	0	2

16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30	Total	%
0	0	3	0	1	2	2	4	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	27	51.9%
0	0	3	0	0	4	5	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	25	48.1%
0	0	6	0	1	6	7	6	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	52	100.0%
0	1	0	0	2	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	1	2	0	16	59.3%
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	2	0	0	0	0	11	40.7%
0	1	0	0	2	0	0	0	0	3	2	1	1	2	0	27	100.0%

6. Discussion

In terms of research methodologies, the present study can be partially classified as non-participation observation (Larsen-Freeman & Long, 1991: 16). No particular hypothesis was established at the outset, and the researcher, who was not directly involved in the interactions, observed them by watching the video recordings. Usually the period of a non-participation observation study is relatively long, with a few subjects being observed. However, it is not the case with this study time-wise. Thus the scope of this study is extremely limited. There is not much confidence to what extent the findings can be generalized. Any claims made here will therefore remain in the realm of speculation.

Among findings based on this researcher's subjective judgment is success in listening comprehension; there were hardly any signs of communicative breakdown due to input incomprehensibility. This can possibly be attributed to their communication-stressed learning experience and the host father's ingenuity for input adjustment. The students had received a large amount of input from our school-based ALT in classroom lessons for one and a half years. In

addition, the host father's conversational support is particularly worth mentioning. He provided a good deal of adjustments to make input comprehensible to N and H. The devices for input and conversation adjustments are frequently cited in second language acquisition research literature (e.g., Larsen-Freeman & Long, 1991; Ellis, 1994), and it is in the host father's utterances that these devices are often noticed. See the following discourse interaction among the host father (F), the younger host sister (Y), N and H:

F1-1: I will be at work. (Talking on the phone)
F1-2: This will be with my wife.
F1-3: Oh, that's great!
F1-4: And yours will be easier to follow anyways.
F1-5: So disregard the yellow ones.
F1-6: Follow the one we get tomorrow morning.
F1-7: OK.
F1-8: Thanks, Joanne.
F1-9: Bye, bye. (Hung up and turned to N and H)
F1-10: School for you and you—tomorrow—7 AM.
H1-1: 7 A?
F2-1: 7 AM, early.
Y1-1: You'll have to wake up early, at 6.
F3-1: 11 hours from now.
F3-2: So 8, 9, 10, 11, 12, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7.
Y2-1: Dad, look at this.
F4-1: 7 AM, school.
Y3-1: Look at this.
F5-1: School.
H2-1: Do we have to go?
F6-1: Yes.
F6-2: Yellow book.
H3-1: Yellow book?
F7-1: Itinerary.
H3-1: Ah.
N1-1: Ah.
F8-1: No good.

(Extracted from Scene 11)

While their discourse was almost always oriented to the 'here and now' (i.e., kitchen utensils, and things which they had brought from Japan such as a video camera, *origami*, *umeboshi*, pictures,

souvenirs, etc.), there were a few cases where a non-*here and now* type of topic was abruptly introduced. In the above mentioned interaction, after talking on the phone with the coordinator of the home stay program (F1-1 to F1-9), the host father intended to inform N and H that their itinerary, which indicated that their school visit was to start at 9:00 the next morning, was wrong and that instead they had to go there at 7:00 (F1-10 to F8-1). This kind of topic change may cause reduced comprehensibility, but the host father's ingenuity with the strategies of repetition and syntactic and lexical simplification prevented H and N from falling into confusion and misunderstanding. In the post-tour report, N and H wrote:

> We were so nervous when we met them first, but they behaved naturally. The twelve-year-old and eleven-year-old host sisters spoke with us so fluently. The host father, who was light-hearted, knew that we were not so good at communicating in English, so he told them to speak with us more slowly.

His conversational support spread throughout the interactions and may have affected the other host members' speeches.

Another finding based on this researcher's impressionistic judgment is that the two subjects were involved in the interactions actively enough to preclude the host family from feeling that they should be opener and more outspoken. The difficulty that Japanese high school students faced while staying in the U.S. for a long period of time was attributed not only to a lack of communicative ability but also to psychological factors such as anxiety and lack of confidence in using English (Yashima, 1999). It is a pity that, in the study by Yashima & Viswat (1993: 195), 16 out of 54 host families claimed that they would never host Japanese students. On our final day in Manteca, when the group was about to depart from there, it was N that stood silent at the bus-departing spot, showing some reluctance to leave the host family. She was the last student to get on the bus bound for San Francisco. Her host mother hugged N, 'complaining' that their home stay was too short. N and H wrote in their post-tour report as follows:

> Our host family was so cheerful and nice that we had a wonderful time. They promised that they would take us to the Disneyland next time we visit them. We do want to pay another visit to Manteca.

It seems that their interpersonal relationship could not have been tighter for such a short period of time. It can be argued that our school-based communicative teaching may have contributed favorably to the successful establishment of this social relationship, the measurement of which is beyond the objective linguistic data analyses of this paper.

From here on, it will be discussed what could have done to make their communicative performance better, based on the subjects' linguistic traits recognized in the data analyses. The

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question that needs to be asked concerning communicative performance is not merely "Was he/she able to communicate?" but "What was he/she able to communicate, and how well?" The what requires consideration of both the topic or context of the communication and of the language function that must be performed in that context. The how well entails judgments of linguistic accuracy and cultural authenticity (Higgs and Clifford 1982: 80). According to the behavioral function analysis, both subjects showed superiority in the category of information-providing utterances, indicating that the function of information providing was predominant in their utterances (see Table 2). This is quite understandable if we consider the situation of the two subjects, who were ready to provide the host family with a great deal of new information concerning themselves, their family, school life, hometown and so forth. Interestingly enough, N outdid not only H but also the host father and the younger host sister percentage-wise (63.4% versus 47.5%, 45.7% and 38.3%). This may indicate that N was very keen, probably keener than H, to contribute to the discourse progress by providing information. This tendency can be accounted for by the fact that N sometimes relied heavily on her self-prepared journal in which messages to be expressed had been written down. Her utterances were in part produced by her on-the-spot simultaneous output and in part by the reproduction of what was written in the notebook. Both N and H showed an occasional use of recognition-indicating utterances, which functioned as feedback signals to the interlocutor (21.1% and 24.6%, respectively). This may mean that N and H were fairly responsive to the interlocutor's linguistic stimuli. It should also be added that H produced information-requesting utterances more frequently than N did (23 versus 9). A microanalysis indicates that H often repeated the previously stated utterances as a confirmation check. See the following scene, where the younger host sister (Y) commented on the *umeboshi*, or pickled plum which she had just tasted.

Y: You [to the pickled plum] smell bad.
H: Bad?
Y: Smell bad.

(Extracted from Scene 9)

This type of question may have functioned as a signal to indicate that she is attentive to the interlocutor's utterances in addition to being a request for information. Percentage-wise, information requesting utterances were more frequently made by H and the two native speakers than by N, who seems to have more enthusiastically engaged in information provision (18.9%, 17.4%, 23.5% versus 7.3%).

As shown in Table 3 and Graph 3, compared with the native speakers, H tended to produce syntactically less complex output in terms of intra-sentential completeness. Her utterances can be characterized by the predominance of miscellanies and minimal/phrasal utterances over clause-containing utterances, while the native speakers showed the predominance of clause-containing

utterances over the other two. 78% of H's utterances were of a non-sentence type, showing that a relatively low degree of intra-sentential completeness. Her production can be regarded as syntactically less complete.

As shown in Table 4, compared with the native speakers, H tended to produce syntactically less complex output in terms of inter-sentential complexity. Her production is characterized by the dominance of single-clause containing encoded moves (96.3%), while 87-92% of the native speakers' production was of single-clause containing moves, with the other two types of moves used as well, though lesser quantity. H's production can be regarded as syntactically less complex. This syntactically less complex tendency was also reported in this researcher's previous study (Iwami 2000a, Iwami 2000b), which showed that communication-stressed learning students did not outperform those from a traditional, regular learning environment in terms of inter-sentential complexity.

The interpretation of N's data, on the other hand, calls for caution. As mentioned above, N's approximation to the native speakers in terms of intra-sentential completeness and inter-sentential complexity is apparently due to her reliance on the journal in which messages to be expressed had been written down. This literacy-dependent communication took place in Scenes 14, 18, 21, 22 and 23, where N produced some number of clause-containing utterances. It can be speculated that if she had relied on her spontaneous performance without referring to the written script, the degrees of intra-sentential completeness and inter-sentential complexity of her production would have dropped down to those of H's production. Therefore, the communicative performance by N shown on the tables does not necessarily reflect her true language profile.

As shown in Table 5, H's utterances showed higher grammatical accuracy than N's (59.3% vs. 51.9%). One plausible explanation for this tendency can be that N sustained her speech, thus creating more occasions for error making. In fact N produced 52 clause-containing moves while H only produced about half that number, 27.

All these findings taken into consideration, it should be discussed what could be done to make their communicative performance more successful. One line of argument concerning the outcome of school-based communicative learning would be that some similarity lies between the results of this study and those of French immersion programs in Canada, allowing room for differences in research-undertaking magnitude: sample size, length of treatment time, tools of measurement, etc. Harley and Swain (1984) found that French immersion students failed to achieve high levels of performance in some aspects of French grammar even after several years in the immersion programs. The results of Swain's study (1985) also indicated that while the immersion students had native-like receptive skills, they failed to attain native-like productive skills. The two subjects of this study seem to have demonstrated success in a context-embedded listening task, which is analogous to the fact that the Canadian immersion students had high, of course even higher, receptive skills. On the other hand, the subjects' productive performance showed a relatively low degree of syntactic development, which is also parallel to the fact that the Canadian immersion

students failed to attain native-like productive skills. Swain (1985) suspected that immersion students would be somewhat limited in their grammatical development because of their relatively limited opportunity to engage in two-way, negotiated meaning exchanges in the classroom.

Our school-based communicative teaching has been proud of its "communication first" inclination, as suggested by the new EFL teaching policy set forth by the Ministry of Education. The students have been blessed in class with plenty of 'live' comprehensible input, which is not too far above their cognitive level. However, it should be admitted that there has been limited opportunity provided in the classroom for students to engage in two-way meaningful negotiation. It has rarely been questioned how effective this type of teaching has been for the development of communicative skills; its accountability has remained unexamined. Larsen-Freeman and Long (1991: 321) suggested that the preponderance of easily attainable linguistic items (i.e., unmarked data that naturalistic acquirers encounter) may lead to simplifications in the grammar before full target competence is attained, i.e., to premature fossilization. Higgs and Clifford (1982: 74) also warn us of the possibility of premature fossilization, stating as follows:

> Members of the group that have arrived at the 2/2+ level through street learning or through "communication first" programs are either unsuccessful at increasing their linguistic ability or tend to show improvement only in areas in which they have already shown high profile.

In a large class of 40 students, all are able to receive comprehensible input equally, but they have not had ample opportunities to engage in forced speaking. As Swain (1985: 248) suggested, to develop their syntactic structures in spoken discourse, some kind of pushed output drills are needed, and it is this aspect that should be incorporated into our future teaching plans and material preparation. In an informal discussion with our school-based ALT, there have been a couple of modifications suggested for our team-taught instruction. These include smaller group formation, in which individual students will be provided more chances to talk, more opportunities for one-to-one interaction between individual students and the ALT out of class, meaning-focused memorization and presentation of longer, personalized, or self-related scripts rather than mechanical rote memorization of controlled dialogues and information bit exchange, and so forth (Owens, personal communication, 2001). The effects of the modified instruction are beyond the scope of this study, but will eventually be explored.

7. Conclusion

It does seem that if we can achieve some degree of understanding of how learners actually behave and what kind of communication problems they face in real-life social contexts, we should be able to utilize our findings in classroom teaching and material preparation. I believe that this paper has demonstrated that, at the very least, there is something to be learned about real-life face-to-face interaction in which communication-stressed high school learners are involved, beyond the simple fact that correct or incorrect forms are used. The students in this study were successful in their listening comprehension task, as long as the topic was oriented toward the here and now, and subject to the conditions of native speakers' input and conversational adjustment. This success may be mainly attributed to the fact that they have been accustomed to receiving context-dependent input in everyday classes. Their participatory behavior was also worthy of evaluation; they were actively involved in interaction with the host family, which led to the establishment of interpersonal relationships with them. Information provision was found to be the predominant function, possibly as a result of our communication-stressed teaching; they were ready to present a lot of new information for their host family. The syntactic structures of the subjects' production remained simplistic; our communication-based instruction may have followed in the Canadian immersion program's footsteps.

It is suggested that some kind of pushed output drills be employed. This type of instructional project should be conducted in the interests of the more fundamental long-term needs of English education in Japan. Meanwhile, this line of research should be extended to the objective observation of communicative performance by other groups of high school students, with larger samples. Such studies may help provide greater insight into the connection between communication-stressed classroom teaching and foreign language acquisition in Japanese schools.

Notes

1. In my previous work (Iwami 2000a, 2000b), three linguistic units were used, act, encoded act and encoded move. The act originally refers to the smallest interactive unit in the discourse which signals what the speaker intends and what s/he wants to communicate (Coulthard, 1977: 102; Stenstrom, 1994: 30). In my previous study, hesitation and pause were also counted as acts. Encoded acts were defined as what the speaker expresses by means of any language form, ranging from a single word to a complex sentence, with a particular function carried. Silence, hesitation and pauses were not included in this category. Encoded acts in my previous study and utterances in my present work are meant to be identical, for no silence, hesitation and pauses were recognized in the data.
2. A couple of sample utterances excerpted from the database will be presented to illustrate the

classification scheme of behavioral functions (see Table 2).

(1) Request for information (Inf. Req.)

Y: Why are you recording this? (Scene 1)

F: Does that use batteries? (Scene 2)

(2) Request for action (Act. Req.)

H: Just a minute. (Scene 2)

Y: And make sure it's small enough for it to fit. (Scene 4)

(3) Request for attention (Att. Req.)

F: Girls! (Scene 1)

F: Sara, honey. (Scene 3)

(4) Provision of information (Inf. Pro.)

Y: This story, it's called Sadako and a thousand paper crane. (Scene 3)

F: Anyway she brought this for us. (Scene 9)

(5) Indication of recognition (Rec. Ind.)

Y: All right, Mom. (Scene 12)

F: Uh huh, yes, yes. (Scene 14)

(6) Establishment of interpersonal relations (Rel. Est.)

F: Hello? (Scene 10)

N: Thank you. (Scene 14)

(7) Decisive declaration (Dec. Dec.)

H: I win, I win, yeah. (Scene 27)

H: You win. (Scene 28)

3. The meaning of zero utterance should be cautiously treated: zero act should not be confused with incapability of participatory behavior. When the subjects produced zero utterance, they were just uninvolved in the focused interaction because they were operating the video camera or involved in another interaction, not because they lacked communicative competence. How the data should be analyzed and interpreted is a very important issue.

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